

JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION
OF JUNIOR COLLEGES

MARCH 1947 • VOL XVII • No. 7

JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

OFFICIAL ORGAN OF THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR COLLEGES



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Volume XVII

CONTENTS FOR MARCH 1947

Number 7

THE SCOPE OF PUBLIC RELATIONS	John H. McCoy	265
THE ROLE OF GENERAL EDUCATION IN THE JUNIOR COLLEGE	Ordway Tead	267
CLASSIFYING JUNIOR-COLLEGE BUSINESS STUDENTS	Louise I. Martin	278
A TESTING PROGRAM IN FLINT JUNIOR COLLEGE	Marie Prahl and Vivien Ingram	282
A JUNIOR COLLEGE IN BRAZIL	Eva Louise Hyde	286
ALUMNI OF LEES-McRAE COLLEGE	Leo K. Pritchett	290
FROM THE EXECUTIVE SECRETARY'S DESK	Jesse P. Bogue	294
JUNIOR COLLEGE WORLD	Jesse P. Bogue	296
RECENT WRITINGS		
JUDGING THE NEW BOOKS		298
SELECTED REFERENCES		301

JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL is published monthly from September to May, inclusive. Subscription: \$3.00 a year, 50 cents a copy. Group subscriptions, to faculty of institutions which are members of the American Association of Junior Colleges: \$1.50 a year. Communications regarding editorial matters should be addressed to Leonard V. Koos, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 5335 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois. Correspondence regarding advertisements and subscriptions should be addressed to Jesse P. Bogue, executive secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges, 1201 Nineteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C. Entered as second-class matter November 22, 1935, at the Post Office at Washington, D. C., under the Act of March 3, 1879. Additional entry at Lancaster, Pennsylvania, July 27, 1944.

[Printed in U. S. A.]

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The Scope of Public Relations

EDITORIAL

PROBLEMS of community enlightenment which have concerned junior colleges these many years appear to be growing more vital as schools expand to meet postwar demands. In the old days, public-relations activities were considered to be simply a matter of publicity. Today we realize that publicity is but a minor phase of the program which must be continually promoted to interweave the life of the college with the life of its locality.

In his research activities of the 1920's Dr. Leonard V. Koos found that the private junior college considered publicity a major item and spent between \$24 and \$25 per student to cover the cost of "catalogues, view books, advertising in

church and secular periodicals, and salaries and expenses of personal solicitors, etc." On the other hand, public junior colleges of the same era were spending "an average of hardly 70 cents per student." Current statistical averages are not available, but a wide difference in costs still exists and many schools are troubled about their dollar expenditures. They little realize that the real problem is not one of spending to attract students but rather one of spending to enlighten the general public on the real need for the junior college as an integral, live, and rising community institution.

The entire question of our relationship with the public is a matter that goes far beyond the realm of mere publicity and is rooted in the very makeup of the respective institutions themselves—in their students, in their administrators, in their alumni, and, perhaps most important of all, in their faculties. Money alone does not make for

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good public relations. We need a better-informed taxpayer, a better-informed graduate, a more co-operative administration, and a more generous and understanding teaching corps.

Realization of the immediate and long-range importance of public relations in the development of all schools connected with the junior-college movement is shown in the recent adoption of two important activity programs on a national scale.

1. The Committee on Administrative Problems of the American Association of Junior Colleges launched a continuing study of public-relations activities, the sole purpose being to arouse interest and secure the support of a more enlightened public. First concrete evidence of this program was exhibited at the St. Louis convention of the organization in February.

2. The California Junior College Federation, comprising fifty-one member-schools in the Far West, established an active department of public relations. Among the initial suggestions outlined for future consideration are the following: (a) Encourage faculty members to contribute to national periodicals. (b) Urge appointment of a full-time junior-college representative in the state department of education. (c) Sponsor establishment of a depart-

ment of public relations in the Washington office of the Association. (d) Secure appointment of a full-time junior-college representative in the United States Office of Education. (e) Assist the state and national programs by having each institution broaden its services in its own community.

Results of such plans are yet to be determined, but it is clear that we are definitely readjusting our sights as far as the scope of public-relations work is concerned. Mere publicity is not the answer. It will take the combined effort of every administrator and every possible faculty member in the majority of institutions if a creditable job is to be done. Melville E. Stone, former general manager of the Associated Press, had something similar in mind years ago when he wrote:

There is an underlying belief that the American people are capable of self-government. If so, they must needs be able to form a judgment. And we conceive it to be of very great importance that the people be given the facts, free from the slightest bias, leaving to them the business of forming their own judgment.

When the public realizes the full significance of the junior-college movement, then—and only then—will we receive the maximum in co-operation and support.

JOHN H. MCCOY

The Role of General Education in the Junior College

ORDWAY TEAD

THE time has come for educators to face more fully the size and urgency of their responsibility. I sometimes think that one reason why we dare not look our present performance squarely in the face is that we would be too discouraged at the contrast between the need and the achievement. Fully to confess our sins of commission and omission might completely dishearten us.

Yet nothing less than this is today required. Only out of an honest confronting of society's need can we generate the hope and adopt the methods now required. Complacency would be criminal, and fortunately it is rare. A guarded and goaded hopefulness is the only mood in which our best effort will be produced. A noble tension of critical and constructive discontent must surely be our approach.

For what confronts us is nothing less than a complete review of every aspect of the questions: What kind of adults do we want our young people to be, and how do we propose to help them to become persons of

that kind? How may we better assure that what we are trying to do produces the kind of young American men and women we want to see emerge from the educational process?

Educational Needs in Relation to Effective Living

Inevitably each generation has to rethink its educational needs in relation to its total problem of effective living, personal and communal. The college has periodically been included in this scrutiny, and the junior college, still in its formative stages, is in acute need of fresh appraisal.

Each period also employs a somewhat new vocabulary. Today the emphasis which is dominant is well dramatized in the title of the Harvard report: our problem is *general education in a free society*.

The present approach is neither accidental nor arbitrary. It derives from a profoundly felt social need. It arises from a profound concern that education shall better assure *general* competence for the rounded living of *all* persons in our kind of society. Our need is for the assurance of richer and more resourceful

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personalities in the complex matrix of a global society. We affirm again with Thomas Jefferson that general education has "to enable every man to judge for himself what will secure or endanger his freedom." With John Dewey we freshly realize that "democracy must be born anew every generation, and education is the midwife." We are again acutely aware with New England's own James Russell Lowell that "new times demand new measures and new men."

I like the characterization of general education which Mrs. Jones gives in her new book, *Bennington College*, where she says, "It is education of the individual-as-a-whole in the culture-as-a-whole." And she goes on:

It should be general in two senses; in that it links the individual with his fellows in some shared knowledge and values; and in that it serves him well in a number of different life situations. Hence he should understand his own tradition, and he should be able to communicate with people whose special line is different from his own. But his capacity to go on learning, adapting himself to change without losing conviction, is a more important ingredient in his general education than any particular content he may have learned.¹

In the operating terms of everyday life, all this means that we want every young person qualified to be

an individual confidently possessed of his own uniqueness and integrity; to be a good family member; a competent worker; an actively functioning, and responsible, alert citizen; and one desiring to use his leisure in ways creative and not corruptive.

We also feel the acute need to be restored to a unified mind and spirit in the face of the divisive and frustrating influences in the thought and action of our time. We deliberately seek to encourage a general view of the person and of his inclusive abilities and capacities to participate in our common life on all its fronts. And by that measure we now realize that we want for all a general education to equip all to play the diversity of roles which modern life requires, with the added beneficence of a sense of unified direction in living.

We require of the citizens of a free society that they be liberated from preconceptions, prejudices, and limited personal preoccupations. It is the further requirement that in definable directions our citizens should be informed; that they be sensitized to the influences of the spirit; and, finally, that they be animated with a dynamic for action which focuses as much on commitment to public responsibility as to personal growth. We want, in short, a great body of persons who have been helped by liberal, general education to throw off the shackles of the provincial,

¹ Barbara Jones, *Bennington College—The Development of an Educational Idea*, p. 119. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946.

the untutored, and the selfish, in favor of existing as free men effectively at home in our kind of world.

Rethinking the Junior-College Function

Of course the gap between promise and performance in education is perennially acute. But those in the junior-college field, proponents for what is still essentially an experimental form of education, have perhaps a harder task of rethinking their function than has either the high school or the four-year college, with respect to both of which they are in organic relationship.

To the end of forwarding this rethinking, I offer certain generalizations about the educational scene of which junior colleges are a part; offer some observations about current trends in the more important tasks which are distinctive to the junior college; and, finally, name a few unresolved problems, the answers to which still seem hidden in the future.

Underlying Generalizations

I start with a number of underlying affirmations.

1. My first proposition is that our society seems increasingly to be coming to agreement upon the aim and intent of giving to every child as much free education as his capacities, abilities, and desires prompt him to take advantage of in the period of formal schooling.

This presumably will bring it to

pass that, within another generation, virtually all our young people will have had the equivalent of a high-school education. It seems likely, furthermore, that the trend, in terms of secondary-school content, will be toward more comprehensive high schools with less of the present division into academic, commercial, trade, and general types of school. The great majority of secondary-school experts and prophets seem agreed upon the desirability of assuring to all high-school students an awareness of a common core of an identifiable heritage, of knowledge and outlook. And the presentation of this common core to our students is to be in sufficiently broad and flexible terms to have an appeal and vital hold upon the motor-minded and aesthetically highly organized students, as well as on those who are more academically and verbalistically minded.

This implies that differentiations in the educational experience of our young people will occur later than is now often the case and that the impact of general, liberal educational experience *for all* will go on to approximately the eighteenth year. Another implication of this will be, and indeed already is, that a progressively enlarging fraction of high-school graduates will seek some post-high-school education. The point where this post-high-school education is sought is presumably early enough for differ-

entiation as to the types of college or junior-college offerings which the young person would seek in terms of individual emphasis upon general or vocational content.

Clearly the objective is that, at any point where a given individual's schooling has to cease, he will have had enough general education for him to qualify with reasonable effectiveness as parent, as citizen, as worker, and as a person. The capacity to attack life in all its varied phases with some confidence will, from now on, be the standard for the educational terminus for every young person.

This objective means also that there has to be a better balance, both at the secondary and the college level, between the concept of education as "preparation for life" and as the progressive maturing of powers, interests, and current effectiveness in the student's immediate experience. We are in need of a wiser policy about the timing of educational content. It is not merely that young people will take to mind and heart only that subject matter in which they are interested in a vital way, but also that the wastefulness of the process is inordinate where the student sees no relation between present subject matter and his total life enterprise. That a clarifying of this principle will prompt us to a more vitalized and comprehensive program of adult education is, of course, an

obvious consequence which it is not in point to explore here.

2. A further proposition is that we shall do better not to conceive of the educational process as centering in the acquiring of additional and discrete bodies of easily forgotten knowledge. Our currently more adequate grasp of the meaning of learning is about to help us to carry on the educational process in a more organic way, calculated to interrelate the growth of body, mind, and feelings. Once we realize with Sidney Hook that wisdom is "knowledge of the nature, career, and consequence of human values,"² we will see that our educational process has throughout been too intellectualistic, too concerned with ill-assorted factual accretions. To the acquiring of carefully selected knowledge has to be added an application of the truth that we know anything only as we think, feel, act, and express ourselves appropriately about it.

3. A further affirmation is that, for reasons now more obvious than ever, our educational enterprise has to be conducted with a far greater sense of urgency, of a mission or crusade to be performed, and of a purposefulness which yields genuine application to hard yet significant tasks. Our education has been too easy in timing, in temper, and in the standards upheld for acceptable work. It is, as Max Lerner has re-

² Sidney Hook, *Education for Modern Man*, p. 92. New York: Dial Press, 1946.

minded us, later than we think; time is of the essence of our contract with society.

4. A still further proposition is that, if educators understand what it means to be rounded persons, we must hold constantly in educational view the combination of abilities, capacities, and talents which that implies. This combination should supply a clue to the objectives and methods which would animate and permeate the work of *every teacher in every course*. For we are concerned here with the following capabilities essential to the effectiveness of the whole person in a free society.

a) The mature person requires conscious mastery of the process of straight thinking, which implies persistent and consistent ability to weigh evidence, confront facts, and make judgments which are valid.

b) More specifically, there has to be a far more widely held grasp of the scientific method, both as a tool of inquiry and as a guide to mastery in both the material and personal worlds.

c) There has to be developed conscious capacity for more effective and amiable human relations in personal and in group experience.

d) There has to be genuine competence in written and oral communication.

e) There has to be self-consciousness and enthusiasm about the democratic aspiration and concrete grasp as to its methods.

f) There has to be a heightened sense of *personal responsibility* for sharing in the conduct of those group enterprises with which individuals affiliate themselves vocationally and otherwise.

g) There has to be sufficient intercultural and international understanding, tolerance, and sympathy to keep our citizenry in peaceful relationship to the people of the other nations of the world.

h) Finally, there has to be a *sufficient inner security* of the self to face the tragedies of life, including disappointment, loss, death, and life's sinfulness, and to acknowledge with reverence, wonder, and awe that there are at work in the world forces which we can but dimly glimpse and do but feebly use.

It is also important, with our present world condition, to underscore more strongly than I have just done the educational need for the *scientific approach* to each person's total competence. Nowhere has the case for this been more powerfully and effectively acknowledged than in Sidney Hook's *Education for Modern Man*, already referred to. And I know of no single paragraph which so powerfully suggests the problem before us than the following from Dr. Vannevar Bush's report, *Science, the Endless Frontier*:

We live in a world in which science lies at the very roots of community, and a mastery of scientific thinking grows more and more indispensable

for the successful practice of the arts of life. The culture of the modern age, if it is to have meaning, must be deeply imbued with scientific ways of thought. It must absorb science, without forsaking what is of value in the older ways or conduces to the understanding of those deeper problems which science by itself is impotent to answer. It is a question, not of substituting a scientific culture for that which has gone before, but of reaching a wider appreciation in which the sciences in their modern development fall into their due place.³

5. A final general proposition is that we have to close the present gulf between our handling of liberal and of vocational education. Too much of our present vocational education is illiberal and narrowing in its results. And too much of our liberal education strives so hard to avoid vocational overtones that much of its relevance to modern living is lost. There is a literal sense in which every course offered as having vocational value should be genuinely liberal, and every so-called liberal course should convey explicitly all its vocational implications.

General Education in the Junior College

My second major concern is to suggest a few of the implications of these propositions for the conduct

³ Vannevar Bush, *Science, the Endless Frontier*, p. 143. Report to the President. Office of Scientific Research and Development. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1945.

of junior colleges as mediums of general education.

I envisage a somewhat formalized ladder of educational opportunity, and I have tried to suggest that there should be enough general education for the general purposes already laid down at every step of the ladder from which one might leave to go into life. This means that, in so far as a junior college is terminal, it should have provided the student up to the level of his ability with those tools of the mind and the spirit which will enable him to face the world competently and effectively.

No doubt the carrying-out of this mandate will be and should be undertaken largely in terms of public and free junior colleges. But I venture to register the hope that enough privately supported junior colleges will be salvaged and encouraged to allow for the utmost flexibility in experiment in order that all sorts of educational pioneering will be assured. Only as they remain experimental can private junior colleges survive.

But whether they are public or private in auspices, junior colleges will presumably carry forward, at a post-high-school level of intellectual challenge, broad studies in the humanities, the natural sciences, and the social studies, all of which would be initiated in the secondary school. There is increasing evidence of a development of a pattern of

four courses, two or three of which would be in general education, and the other laying some general foundation for later, more intensive vocational training. The name is less important than the reality, but the idea of inclusive surveys of synoptic courses which take a wider perspective than our present departmental subjects without shallowness of treatment is, I am sure, destined to gain headway.

We do not need more courses in junior colleges to fulfil the mandate of general education. Rather we need a simplification of the curricular offering, with the teachers of every subject concerned to give effect, through their subject matter, to the development of the human capacities enumerated above. Or to put it differently, all junior-college instruction in general education should be only in part informational. It should in other part aim for the cultivation of general human capabilities necessary for effective living. And the teachers' and the students' scholarly attainment is, from now on, to be seen less in academic terms than in terms of the developing of these broader human qualities.

The objective of the cultivation of general, human capabilities further calls attention to the need for facing up to the improved instructional methods needed now that an increasing fraction of students is drawn from those of moderate in-

tellectual endowments. The academic, verbalistic, abstract, book-reading approach is not sufficient to arouse or hold the interest of the majority of students. The manipulation of inert ideas has to give way to a teaching process which is variegated, vibrant with relevance and importance, more activist, and clearly tied in with what students feel to be significant for them. Teaching methods with visual aids, seminar techniques, student visits and reports, and other devices to overcome abstruseness and remoteness of material, have to be adapted to our purposes.

In order that I may not be mistakenly thought to be advocating a standardization of curriculum for wholesale application, let me say at once that the function of student counseling, both educational and personal, in the junior college is of the highest importance. A generous outlay of time and thought, both by professional counselors and by every teacher, should undoubtedly be made here in order that each individual student will gain from his college experience the most and the best for him.

A word should be added regarding the fullest vitalizing of the physical-education programs at the junior-college level. We have advanced beyond the stage of routine calisthenics and are in an era of more or less competitive games, with some recognition of the values

of instruction in the dance. But we still have far to go in a sufficient individualizing of the physical-education work to assure that the specific weaknesses and failures of physical co-ordination of *every* individual are given enough corrective attention and that robustness and vigor of physical and mental health are assured.

A further observation has to do with what we still speak of as the "extra-curriculum activities." These lie in a variety of areas, some more and some less close to existing course offerings. But the importance of the ends to be served by these activities is so great that they need to be conceived and administered in continuously close co-ordination with the formal curriculum. Because these experiences can contribute so much to emotional maturing, to the development of leadership capacity, to skill in human relations, to sensitivity to spiritual values, it is imperative that their true motives be kept continuously in view by those who direct the educational process.

I am here referring specifically to the conduct of the college assemblies and chapels, to all the various musical activities—chorus, choir, glee club, orchestra, to the fullest possible utilization of the drama, to the conduct of the college journal, and perhaps even to the conduct of the lunchroom or college store where some features of co-operative

control might well have educational value. In short, what I am saying is that we ought to abandon the use of the word "extra-curriculum" and realize at its true educational worth every activity which is, in fact, allowed to go on within the college walls.

A further explicit word is in order about the vocational offerings of junior colleges. There is, of course, a complete lack of standardization here. In the West, notably California, the vocational emphasis is more dominant than it is in the junior colleges of the eastern seaboard. I am far from asserting that the vocational aims should be abandoned. Undoubtedly there are numerous occupations for which young people can be helped to qualify as the result of some vocational instruction in a junior college. Rather I am saying that in a democratic society the aim of general education to produce rounded persons must keep the narrowly vocational aim in its proper perspective, emphasis, and content. This implies that in *all* courses at the junior-college level, the motive of gaining competence for work may well be drawn upon heavily and that in certain courses specific vocational aims may begin to emerge, but it does *not* imply using so much of the student's time for detailed training in restricted skills that he has insufficient time left for other assignments designed to make him a whole person.

If this means that increasingly the final vocational training is put over beyond the eighteenth or nineteenth year, I see no objection to this delay. For it is also true that in the majority of occupations the capacities most needed are those fostered by general education, and in many types of work it should properly be the responsibility of the employer to do the job of training after the community has equipped the person to carry on the varied activities of adult life. The general capacities which an effective general education should and can supply are those which, in a great fraction of the world's work, can lead to eventual, effective vocational performance. Specifically, young people need at all employments such qualities as adaptability, resourcefulness, ability to analyze problems, ability to concentrate, ability to be prompt and cheerful in the performance of tasks, ability to work in co-operation with others—and these are intellectual and moral qualities and not vocational skills.

With characteristic courage and vigor Professor Howard Mumford Jones, in his excellent new volume *Education and World Tragedy*, comes out flatly for a virtual insistence that no one should be allowed to enter college doors "until he gave some reasonable assurance that he proposed to pursue a course of professional or vocational train-

ing."⁴ This would, he sensibly argues, bring the student's education into focus as personally relevant and strongly motivated.

But there are cautions to be observed regarding such a procedure, even at the junior-college level, however ideally desirable this may be thought to be. One is that many youngsters have not, at this age, been able to discover personal aptitudes and interests. Another is that interests identified at seventeen have often shifted elsewhere by twenty-one or two. And a third even more determining factor is that there is a preponderance of employments in our world which require little or no specialized education beyond the general qualities already mentioned. In short, both two-year and four-year colleges have to face youths with unformed talents and face a society with numerous job needs for which a good working attitude and approach are more valuable than some technical skill acquired in advance.

Another phase of the vocational part of our programs which needs more attention has to do with what we may call "vocational citizenship." With the increase of worker organizations in more and more of the callings of life, whether they take the form of labor unions or of professional associations, it is im-

⁴ Howard Mumford Jones, *Education and World Tragedy*, p. 95. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1946.

portant for young people to understand that they do not enter employment merely as isolated individuals but that they become citizens of what is, in effect, some smaller industrial society. If and when they become members of a union or of a professional association, they not only gain rights but assume responsibilities which it is vital for them to understand since the conduct of our public life promises increasingly to take place through the interplay of such vocational groups. For every citizen to understand the relation of his special group interests to the ultimate primacy of a public interest is essential to the health of a democracy. Any vocational instruction which ignores some interpretation of the social significance of vocational citizenship is seriously inadequate.

Problems for the Future

I do not minimize the difficulty of the mandate which I believe is upon us, nor do I suggest that we know all the answers for the successful accomplishment of our mandate. In fact, it seems useful, in conclusion, to enumerate briefly some of the contentious areas about which further experience will hopefully offer illumination as to the sound ways ahead.

There is the question of the organizing of the timing of college entrance. The so-called "6-4-4

plan" has its vigorous advocates, and there are those who believe that the present four-year college is a too protracted period.

Second, there is, so far as public junior colleges are concerned, the open question of whether they should be administered under a local superintendent of schools as an adjunct of the high school or whether they should have the independent autonomy of a college with its own board of trustees.

A third problem concerns the better utilization of the twelve months of the year as compared with the present college program of around thirty-four weeks. I am confident that we must anticipate that the college will be responsible for the activities of the student during eleven months of the year, with a much needed supplementing of class and book instruction by work and visitation experience away from the campus. Some one of many possible variants of a study-work plan is surely essential in order to vitalize the junior-college program.

I mention, because it is a problem needing the combined influence and resources of the entire junior-college world, the problem of the training of teachers who will be truly competent for instruction at this level. The whole task of teacher training has simply not been faced up to, and we improvise here, to our serious disadvantage.

Finally, there is the problem, also not to be met by any single institution alone, of having the educational purpose, importance, and cost of the junior-college program better understood throughout the community. There is here a task of interpretative public relations which requires not merely association action, but action by the American Association of Junior Colleges on a scale and with a vigor which has as yet hardly been visualized. One reason why it is urgent that educators more rapidly and completely agree among themselves about the aims of junior colleges is that, with this new and hopefully more unified statement of purpose, we can give to our constituents a more effective plea for that greater support which will enable us to do our job more adequately and more satisfyingly.

For it is clear that the branch of

our educational system which will have the most rapid elaboration in the next two or three decades is the junior college. One reason why that growth may be expected is that more citizens are coming to believe that, if more and more of our young people can finish their general education at the junior-college level, they will be better equipped than they now are to face life with competence.

In summary, the role of general education at the level of the junior college is an increasingly indispensable role. Its liberal purpose takes precedence over its vocational aims. And we have the responsibility of being sure that, up to the level of their powers, everyone who leaves a junior college is qualified to carry on that effort of personal growth and maturing which will assure his adequate adjustment to life in a free society.

Classifying Junior-College Business Students

LOUISE I. MARTIN

THE inquiry, results of which are reported in this article, was made to find a satisfactory method of classifying students in the junior-college secretarial department and to find what is generally considered a proper standard of accomplishment at the end of the first and second year in stenography. Many students entering junior college have had one or two years of work in shorthand, typewriting, and book-keeping in high school, and, because of this previous training, it is difficult to classify them satisfactorily in a college program.

Lists of Tests Reported

To throw some light on this problem, a questionnaire was sent to 125 junior colleges. Fifty-six usable reports were received from colleges in 31 states. From the reports it was found that 23 of these colleges give general-ability tests to all students entering college, including business students. The results on these tests, however, could not be used in deciding whether to give ad-

vanced standing to business students except that they might determine that it should be withheld. The following general-ability tests are given entering Freshmen:

Otis Quick-scoring Mental Ability Tests
Iowa Placement Examination in Mathematics
Iowa Placement Examination in English Training
Nelson-Denny Reading Test
Strong Vocational Interest Blank
American Council Psychological Examination
Cooperative English Test
Barrett-Ryan-Schrammel English Test
Iowa Silent Reading Tests
University of Missouri Vocational Interest Test
Pribble-McCrory Diagnostic Tests in Practical English Grammar
Terman-McNemar Test of Mental Ability

Classification in Stenography

Of the fifty-six responding to the questionnaire, seven schools administered special stenography-aptitude tests for placement in business courses. One used the Hoke Prognostic Test of Stenographic Ability; two used the Turse Shorthand Aptitude Test; two used mathematics and English tests of their own construction; two used spelling, arithmetic, and penman-

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ship tests. Forty-six schools gave no special test to students entering stenography classes. Twenty-five schools gave no tests of any kind, either general or special.

There is no generally used method for determining the advanced standing to be given a student with previous training in stenography. Twenty-nine schools gave speed tests at entrance to classify students for second-year college work. The range in speed required was from 60 to 80 words per minute with 95 per cent accuracy. All schools reporting the use of tests believed in a week or two of tryout and then, if necessary, reclassification of the student. Twenty-seven schools classified their students arbitrarily; that is, two years of high-school work placed students in second-year college work. Thirty schools used high-school marks and interviews to determine the advisability of granting advanced standing. In schools with large enrolments, the programs are usually more flexible and adjustments are more easily made than in the small schools, where reclassifying is a real problem.

The standards of accomplishment to be attained in the stenography work in the junior college were reported as follows:

For accomplishment in the first year

- 12 schools aimed at 60 words per minute.
- 34 schools, at 80 words per minute.
- 2 schools, at 100 words per minute.
- 1 school, at 120 words per minute.

For accomplishment in the second year

- 2 schools aimed at 80 words per minute.
- 14 schools, at 100 words per minute.
- 30 schools, at 120 words per minute.
- 7 schools, at 140 words per minute.

Others reporting indicated no set goals. The wide variation in standards is evident.

All reports agree that a general vocabulary should be developed in stenography. Of the schools developing special vocabularies, one respondent suggested law. Three schools offered special courses for medical secretaries. Several schools reported using special vocabularies to fit individual or community needs.

Classification in Typewriting

The classification of students in typewriting seems to present less of a problem than does classification in stenography. In testing for placement, twenty-five schools reported the use of both letter and straight copy tests, and six included tabulation work. Sixteen schools used straight copy tests, with emphasis on accuracy. Fifteen schools gave students advanced standing without testing; they based their decisions on high-school marks and previous experience.

The speed requirements for college typewriting varied considerably. The range was 25-40 words a minute for the first year and 40-60 for second-year work. It was reassuring to find that speed in straight

copy work was only one factor and that proficiency in typewriting letters, rough drafts, tabulations, and general materials was given much weight.

Classification in Bookkeeping

The problem of classification of bookkeeping students is evidently less troublesome than is classification in the other two subjects, for here there was general agreement. In accounting, variations in skill do not present critical problems. Forty-one schools gave no advanced standing to students entering college with high-school credits in bookkeeping. Fifteen schools granted advanced standing. Five schools gave one semester of credit for one year of high-school bookkeeping to students who had received marks of A. Seven schools granted from one quarter to two semesters of credit to "A" students entering with two years of high-school credit in bookkeeping. Three schools reported using locally constructed tests for placement.

From the reports it appeared that most students entering college have had only one year of bookkeeping in high school and are, therefore, not prepared for advanced work. It was generally agreed that the training received in high school was helpful but that it usually was not sufficient to qualify a student for advanced accounting work in college.

Classification through Counseling

It was gratifying to find the number of schools using the counseling method for classifying; the individual was considered and blanket policies were not generally used. One school reported having used an entrance test and also arbitrary classification but had found neither method satisfactory. It later found a 15-20 minute interview with the student at enrolment time proved successful in classification.

Though it might be ideal to put all students entering college with previous training in a subject in a special class, such an organization is not generally feasible. Furthermore, the standards of schools vary with individual teachers or schools, and a testing program after three months of vacation puts the student at an unusual disadvantage.

Conclusion

This report indicates the wide range of requirements for placement and of accomplishments to be attained in a two-year, terminal, junior-college course in business. To save the student's time and to avoid damping his interest with unnecessary repetition, a method ought to be found by which the student with previous training in the skill subjects, stenography and typewriting, could be classified quickly and easily. For this purpose a standardized test might be constructed to be used as a measure for all colleges.

A report, such as that given here, every two or three years would then point out to all colleges the general standard of attainment. The majority of junior-college students should be brought to a much greater proficiency than is the average high-school student.

A college student, because of maturity and educational background, should be capable of meeting the ever increasing demands of the business world for proficiency. The in-

structors of business subjects must acquaint themselves with these requirements and match them with their demands of the student, so that the students will be able to perform satisfactorily on the job from the start and avoid the despair and loss caused by initial failure. The businessman, who must be kept in mind at all times during the training period, will appreciate cutting on-the-job training periods to a minimum.

A Testing Program in Flint Junior College

MARIE PRAHL AND VIVIEN INGRAM

The Problem

IN SEPTEMBER, 1946, Flint Junior College enrolled 911 students. The highest previous enrolment had been 515 in 1939. With limited space, inadequate facilities, and a recently enlarged staff, we were forced by the great influx of veterans to dispense with the usual pre-registration testing program and to proceed with the mechanics of registration and readjustment of class sizes and schedules.

At the end of six weeks of classes, the faculty reported all unsatisfactory work (D and E levels). Veterans and nonveterans alike reacted to the unusual number of low marks, voicing dissatisfaction with "too high standards." This criticism found its way into student council meetings, and two officers were named to attend faculty meetings and present the problem of students who felt that they were not being given a fair chance to prove them-

selves. The students were well received by the faculty, and the president of the college named two faculty members to meet with a representative student committee to deal with student-teacher problems. Many veterans, of course, felt that the faculty had set standards that were "too stiff," while many faculty members insisted that we were only continuing the standards in ordinary use and that veterans should be held to them. At this time our belated testing program was set up, and it proved an aid to better understanding between students and faculty on the problems of scholastic standards.

Method of Attack

The 1941 edition of the American Council Psychological Examination was administered to 485 Freshmen in Flint Junior College. This project was carried out on a voluntary basis. Notices were posted, giving Freshmen an opportunity to sign up for testing any afternoon between 2:30 and 3:30 during the school week. Of a Freshman population of something over 600, the response was about 100 a day, or 485.

Scoring and tabulating were car-

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ried on as a laboratory project of the Sophomore class in psychology under the supervision of the instructor. Raw scores were translated into percentile scores by faculty members.

The Schrammell-Gray High School and College Reading Test was administered in the Freshman English classes and was scored by the instructors.

Results

The actual results of the testing are shown in Tables 1 and 2. It is

comprise an unselected veteran group who are attempting higher education.

On the reading test the Flint Junior College students do not show a significant difference from other college Freshmen in gross comprehension, although there is a slight sag in the Flint Junior College Scores between the thirtieth and the eightieth percentiles. This, however, reaches a maximum of only five points at any one place.

The scores on rate show marked differences. The Flint Junior Col-

TABLE 1.—COMPARISON OF NORMS OF AMERICAN COUNCIL PSYCHOLOGICAL EXAMINATION (1941 EDITION) FOR 14,609 COLLEGE FRESHMEN WITH SCORES OF 485 FRESHMEN IN FLINT JUNIOR COLLEGE

Percentile	Raw L-Score		Raw Q-Score		Raw Gross Score	
	National Norm	Flint Score	National Norm	Flint Score	National Norm	Flint Score
90	87	85	55	55	137	134
80	80	75	51	50	127	123
70	74	70	48	48	119	114
60	70	68	45	45	112	111
50	65	64	42	43	106	103
40	62	62	39	39	100	100
30	57	57	36	36	92	93
20	50	53	31	31	83	83
10	44	46	24	24	71	73

interesting to observe that at no point on the scale do the norms for college Freshmen on the American Council Psychological Examination vary more than five points from the scores made by the Flint Junior College Freshmen. These results are particularly significant, since the pre-war 1941 edition of the test was used on a student population, 75 per cent of whom

lege scores are from two to nineteen points lower than the national norms, with the greatest variance at the lower end of the scale and with the scores approximating the norms at the ninetieth percentile. These findings indicate a need for a program to improve reading rates. They probably are accounted for by the fact that most of the school population is made up of veterans

who had few opportunities to keep up their reading skills while in service.

TABLE 2.—COMPARISON OF NORMS ON SCHRAMMELL-GRAY HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE READING TEST AT COLLEGE FRESHMAN LEVEL WITH SCORES OF 648 FRESHMEN IN FLINT JUNIOR COLLEGE

Percentile	Gross Comprehension Score		Rate Score	
	National Norm	Flint Score	National Norm	Flint Score
90	90	90	183	181
80	86	81	181	171
70	80	75	177	161
60	76	71	169	150
50	71	67	158	149
40	67	64	152	140
30	62	61	142	130
20	56	55	130	121
10	50	47	114	102

Conclusion and Projected Plans

At mid-semester, when faculty advisers consulted with their advisees about mid-semester examinations and marks, the instructors already had heard a complete report and interpretation of the testing program. In conferring with students, these faculty advisers were prepared not only to discuss marks but to interpret test results as a basis for counseling the students about future choices of subjects, improvement of study habits, and possible scholastic improvement.

Since our student population measured up to the general college Freshman group, the faculty felt

that it was not unreasonable to maintain present scholastic standards if we could help the first-year students and the returning veterans to make better use of their abilities. Under the direction of the library staff, six-week courses in reading are being offered in the evening, in which use of the Harvard films¹ may help many slow readers increase their rate and improve their study habits. More students are being referred to refresher courses in English and mathematics, and more instructors are taking class time to illustrate effective methods of preparing an assignment and of studying for examinations.

Faculty advisers also discovered that low marks were generally found among those students in the lower percentiles on the American Council Examination. This finding indicated that our instructors were making fair judgments of those students below college standard. When the correlation between marks and test scores was made known to the individual students, there was less evidence of dissatisfaction with standards set by the instructors. Many students who had not taken the test asked to have it administered again so that they, too, might be tested.

¹ Harvard Films for the Improvement of Reading. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard Film Service, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University.

If the students were benefited and more satisfied after the testing program, so, too, were the faculty. When we had tested our students during registration week, we had not realized what a valuable part of our counseling program depended on testing results. After having registered 911 students and having struggled through half a semester without tangible data for guiding students who were having trouble with class work, we were more than ever convinced of the necessity for testing.

Our plans for orientation for mid-year enrollees include administration of a physical examination, of the Schrammell-Gray Reading Test, and of the American Council Psychological Examination, which will be scored and ready for use by the advisers during registration week. These test results, together with the transcripts from high school and records of military experience, should help the adviser and student to plan a satisfying program of work for the span of his college training.

A Junior College in Brazil

EVA LOUISE HYDE

BENNETT JUNIOR COLLEGE, an infant in the American Association of Junior Colleges, is doing a pioneer job in this type of educational service in Brazil. In that country, as in all of Latin America, education at the college level is limited to professional schools: medicine, law, engineering, fine arts, etc. The most recently created school in the national university system, the Faculdade de Filosofia e Letras, is destined to the training of secondary-school teachers. There are no general courses or degrees in arts and letters as we in the United States know them. Some of the subjects taught in such courses in the United States are interspersed with the technical subjects in the professional schools. Others, which in this country are found in the first or second year of college, are crowded into the over-full schedule of the senior high school in the present 5-4-3 year plan of the federal Ministry of Education.

Bennett School was founded in

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1921 by the Southern Methodist Church of the United States as a missionary project. In 1930 the property was turned over to the then autonomous Methodist Church of Brazil, but the school continues to receive financial assistance and missionary co-operation from the mother-church in the states. This assistance takes the place of an endowment, which the school does not possess. During the first twenty years of its existence Bennett maintained only primary and high-school courses. In 1941 the junior college was inaugurated, and in 1942 the pre-primary department was created. The school was named in honor of Miss Belle Harris Bennett, of Richmond, Kentucky, for many years a leader in the mission work of the Southern Methodist Church and a woman of great vision and statesmanship.

After twenty-five years of educational service in the beautiful capital of the great Republic of Brazil, the directors of Colegio Bennett (*colegio* in this case being a general term for "school") felt that in the educational menu offered to women there was a great lack which

a junior college might help to supply. With the aim, therefore, of making an original and useful contribution to women's education, a junior college was added to the existing departments of *Colegio Bennett* in 1941. Since there is no official model for such a course in the federal plan of education (education is highly centralized in Brazil), there could be no federal recognition of this new course. This fact has undoubtedly diminished the enrolment in the otherwise attractive courses offered. It is felt, however, that once the experimental stage is past and the institution has demonstrated its worth, this difficulty will be removed. Already six of its graduates, with majors in home economics, have found no difficulty in registering their diplomas and securing teaching certificates from the Federal Department of Secondary Education.

At present this is the only school in Rio de Janeiro, and one of the very few in the whole country, offering teacher training in home economics. It is probably the only school in Brazil giving advanced courses in nutrition, child care, and home management. When the preliminary study for the curriculum of *Bennett Junior College* was made, the committee was guided by two main objectives: (1) to offer courses which girls could not get in existing institutions; (2) to select those courses which would combine

the highest cultural and practical values for Brazilian womanhood. Training in scientific homemaking and in community service was felt to be basic. Alongside the general cultural subjects, therefore, majors are offered in home economics, preprimary child education, social service, and religious education. The last-named course is offered to meet a need for religious-education directors in Protestant church schools.

In order to vitalize the study of childhood and to furnish the practice necessary for preprimary teacher candidates, a model nursery school and a model kindergarten were opened. The nursery school was equipped with an observation gallery with one-way-vision screen to enable the students to study child behavior under normal conditions. Naturally the practice teachers assist and enter fully into all activities of the school, including the parent-education program. The program of preprimary education has proved of great value to the community and has become so popular that a long waiting list is maintained and hundreds of tiny tots must be refused admission for lack of space.

The teacher candidates in home economics get their practice in the courses in foods and cookery maintained for the high-school students. Some also teach such courses in the social settlement, *People's Central Institute*, in the slums of Rio—an

institution which serves as a laboratory for the students majoring in social service.

Through the generous gifts of American Methodist women, two new buildings for the junior college were added to the campus in 1942: one for administration and classrooms, the other for a residence hall. These beautiful buildings are well planned from the pedagogical viewpoint. A large and well-equipped auditorium offers opportunity for all sorts of worth-while extra-curriculum activities. A handsome and spacious library furnishes materials and atmosphere conducive to study and research. Well-equipped laboratories facilitate the teaching of sciences and home economics. The nursery school is both modern and charming in its physical aspect. The pleasant residence hall permits students and a small part of the faculty to enjoy the comforts and freedom of a well-regulated household. The campus, though small, is beautiful with its large shade trees, green grass plots, and bright flower borders. It also furnishes space for tennis and volley-ball courts.

The school is situated in one of the best residential districts of the city and is easily accessible from all parts. Besides being the capital of the country, Rio de Janeiro is a great port city and one of the two chief educational centers for all Brazil, the other one being São Paulo. Rio is a city of almost two

million inhabitants. The majority of the college students come from the city and suburbs. However, during the past year nine or ten states were represented by students in the boarding department. Students came from the extreme north and south of Brazil, from points as distant as two thousand miles or more, as well as from the near-by states of São Paulo and Minas Geraes. A number of exchange students from the neighboring republics of Uruguay, Paraguay, and Argentina have registered as special students in psychology and other subjects, having been recommended to Bennett by government authorities in the Department of Education.

At the head of Bennett's psychology department is one of Brazil's foremost psychologists, Dona Heloisa Marinho, who is also a teacher in the Municipal Teachers' College and is the author of several important monographs published by the federal Institute of Pedagogical Research. Dona Heloisa did her high-school work at Colegio Bennett and graduated in its first high-school class in 1923. She then came to the United States and took her Bachelor's degree from the University of Chicago. Later periods of study were spent by her in Europe, especially Germany.

The dean of the College is Miss Anita Harris, who obtained the Bachelor of Science degree from Elmira College and the Master's de-

gree from Teachers College, Columbia University. About half of the remainder of the faculty are Brazilian and half American.

Although so young, the College has already furnished home-economics and kindergarten teachers for three institutions and a social-service worker for the People's Central Institute. Four of its graduates are now continuing their studies in American universities: Bar-

nard College, New Jersey Woman's College, Indiana University, and George Peabody College for Teachers. Others are planning to study in the states in the coming year.

The growth of the College during these years of its infancy has been slow but satisfactory. Its founders and staff feel that it has now proved its worth and foresee for it long years of useful and ever expanding service to the womanhood of Brazil.

Alumni of Lees-McRae College

LEO K. PRITCHETT

Purpose and Scope

EDUCATION, like industry, is judged by the products that it turns out. The educational products are called "alumni." Periodically, industry checks its products in order to see whether improvements can be made. The educational institution, too, should check its product periodically in order to determine whether it can do a better job in its field.

Following this line of reasoning, Lees-McRae College—a coeducational, Presbyterian, junior college—made a survey to determine how well it was serving its students. A questionnaire was sent to all alumni and former students (1,179) who had attended the college from 1930 to 1940. The questionnaire was divided into four parts.

Part I asked for some personal history: the name of the student; his address when he was enrolled at Lees-McRae; his present address; his marital status and, if married, the date of marriage; the

number of his children (boys and girls separately); the year in which the student came to Lees-McRae; how long he remained; whether he was graduated; and the year of graduation. Part II requested information on the additional education obtained by the alumnus after he left Lees-McRae College. The occupational history was obtained in Part III of the questionnaire. The individual was asked to check one of a long list of occupations or, if his occupation was not listed, to indicate what he was doing.

Part IV dealt with the alumni's opinions in appraisal of their junior-college education. Nine questions were asked. The first three questions, quoted below, dealt with certain outcomes of education:

1. In your opinion did Lees-McRae help you to understand yourself better?
2. Did Lees-McRae help you to understand others?
3. Did Lees-McRae help you to understand better the world in which you live (including, among others, the political, economic, social, religious, biological aspects, etc.)?

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For each of these three questions, the alumnus was asked to check one of the following responses:

"Yes," "No," or "Made no impression." The fourth question in Part IV asked the former student to make any remarks that he cared to concerning the outstanding value which he had received from Lees-McRae. The fifth question asked what changes the alumnus would like to see made at the College in the curriculum, the social life, the religious life, and other aspects of the institution. The last four questions dealt with information concerning local alumni chapters.

In this article no attempt is made to report on the entire questionnaire. Much of the information obtained in this survey would not be of interest to the general reader, although it is valuable to this College. This article emphasizes only Parts II and III of the follow-up study. The data on which the article is based were obtained from 404 questionnaires which were returned. This represented about a third of all questionnaires sent to the alumni for the ten-year period.

Continuance of Education by Alumni

The survey revealed that 254 alumni, or 63 per cent of those replying, attended other institutions after leaving Lees-McRae College. The figure given for those students who obtained additional education included not only the junior-college graduates but also a scattering of those who did not remain for

graduation at this College but did attend other institutions, including such institutions as business schools. It was revealed further that only 41 per cent of the alumni attended senior colleges or universities. Alumni reported attendance in some seventy senior colleges and universities.

A more accurate picture of the preparatory function of the college in this ten-year period is revealed by statistics gathered from the registrar's office, which are not included in this survey. The statistics from this source show that almost 46 per cent of the graduates of 1930-40 transferred to senior institutions.

The statistics on the length of time spent at the other institutions after leaving Lees-McRae College showed the average to be 1.68 years. It should be kept in mind that this is an approximate figure owing to the impossibility of obtaining absolute data. Some respondents said that they were just beginning their attendance at some other institution and made no further comment. The total number of degrees earned by the alumni during the ten-year period is seventy, and at least thirty-two alumni indicated that they were still attending college.

Occupations of Alumni

The occupational history of the alumni, as obtained in Part III of

the questionnaire, revealed a rather wide diversity in occupations. In the case of some occupations, a true picture could not be given for several reasons. (1) Some respondents indicated that they were housewives who were also working outside the home. These replies were duly recorded in that fashion if the questionnaire indicated that the graduates were spending full time or a considerable part of their time outside the home in an occupation or profession. Examples of this would be housewife and teacher, housewife and sales clerk, etc. A scattered few individuals indicated that they were farming and were also working in other positions or as ministers, teachers, etc. (2) Some occupations, because of particular peculiarities, were impossible to classify and were, consequently, placed under a general heading. (3) Those alumni who said that they were unemployed were women, who were at home—and in some cases were remaining at home specifically to care for their parents.

Altogether, sixty-eight occupations were reported. Twelve respondents were unemployed. For convenience, the occupations were divided into the following nine areas, listed here in the order of frequency of report: (1) professional service, (2) domestic and personal service, (3) clerical occupations, (4) manufacturing and mechanical

industries, (5) trade, (6) preparatory (still going to college), (7) public service, (8) agriculture, and (9) transportation. Teaching was the outstanding occupation in the professional field. Domestic and personal service ranked second because of the large number of housewives in this category.

Value of the Inquiry

It can readily be seen that the data obtained on the additional education after leaving Lees-McRae College and on the occupational history of junior-college graduates point to the two recognized functions of a junior-college: (1) the preparatory function, which fits the student for additional training in senior colleges and universities, and (2) the terminal function, which prepares the student to enter directly into some occupation, as well as to take his place in a democratic society. Furthermore, it brings out the role of the junior college in terminal education. It was found that slightly more than half of the students attending Lees-McRae College in this ten-year period did not continue their formal education.

In most follow-up studies there is this weakness: the selection resulting from the small proportion of the students and graduates who answer an inquiry of this sort. As a rule, the most successful and favorably disposed persons are those

who answer such an inquiry, and this fact makes the picture look better than it is. However, the selection does not totally discredit such a study. Recognizing this weakness, any junior college would still find it beneficial to make such a survey. It may help the institution to determine weaknesses and strengths and may reveal whether the institution should stress its preparatory function or its terminal function.

Furthermore, a follow-up study is of importance to a junior college because it is a peculiarly adaptive instrument for institutional analysis. That is the reason, for example, that the questionnaire survey made by Lees-McRae College is not reported fully in this article. Much information obtained was of interest only to this institution. The

College wanted to find out about the mobility of the population which it was serving, the marriage pattern, the geographic areas affected by its program, the needs for preparatory and terminal courses, and the occupational areas which its students were entering. Furthermore, it wanted to know what were the opinions of the alumni concerning the democratizing influences of the College and concerning certain outcomes of their training which should have enabled them to understand better the world in which they are living. In addition, it wanted to discover what the alumni thought about the other by-products of education, such as the religious influences, personality values, and the contribution of extra-curriculum activities.

From the Executive Secretary's Desk

JESSE P. BOGUE

ONE function of the Executive Secretary is to observe national trends and interpret them, especially as they may affect junior colleges. Universal military training is one of these definite trends which needs constant observation and interpretation. At the danger, therefore, of repetition, this space will be devoted to further consideration of this question. The writer is doing this, with his eyes open, because he is convinced that the adoption of a peacetime policy of universal military training will affect higher education and the future of this nation far more than is generally realized.

In the February issue of the *Junior College Journal* the statement was made that universal military training was a declaration of foreign as well as domestic policy. Since that statement was made, the writer has engaged in a series of discussions in which the implications of the proposed plan for our foreign policy were sharply challenged. The dissenters took the position that the manner in which we secured our armed forces was strictly a domestic affair.

Now, the position of our State

Department on this point has been declared both by Mr. Warren R. Austin and by General Marshall. In substance, they have said that the United States is willing to go as far and as fast as all other nations toward the reduction of armaments. Our nation will never reduce its armed forces beyond the necessities for security until provisions for collective security are fully guaranteed. This position will meet with approval from the vast majority of the American people.

Both Mr. Austin and General Marshall have said that our security and our means of obtaining it by international action are linked directly with the *necessity* of universal military training. In all negotiations with other nations our hands will be strong if other nations know that our words can be backed up with ample force, both economic and military. Let us grant, for the sake of fairness, that the status of world civilization today is too low to warrant negotiations based on reason only; that weakness would invite and encourage aggressive, unacceptable demands from other nations. In short, the claims of reason must be supported by the

threat of force. Unfortunately this may be true, and realism now in this respect may prevent inevitable armed conflicts later. Although the earth could be fair, nevertheless it is not. We must begin where we are and deal with such means as we have available.

The relevant issue, then, is the following statement made by General Marshall on February 8, 1947: "Unless we have universal military training we will not have any real positive military power to back up our foreign policy." The plain speech of General Marshall is surely appreciated by the American people. His strong attitude in dealing with international affairs represents the desires and convictions of this nation.

However—and this is the nub of the problem—that universal military training is *necessary* to give us "any real positive military power" has not been proved. Until it has been proved, universal military training will be opposed on the ground that there is a better way to make our international position secure. The burden of proof may rest on the opposition to universal military training to show that there is a superior plan.

The better plan can be devised by the Army on the same basis as it has been by the Navy and the Marine Corps. In one year nearly a million volunteers have enlisted in the Army under present condi-

tions. The pay is high. In fact, when all benefits are considered, the financial position of a soldier is as good as it would be in civilian life, and in several respects even better. Now, let the Army, if it will, take and practice a few lessons from other branches of our armed forces. Make better provisions for R.O.T.C. to insure ample reserves for officer personnel. Create a national guard on a voluntary basis far superior—both in size and in efficiency—to any previously trained. Keep the draft law in effect until our commitments abroad can be met without it. Above all else, raise the level of the physical and intellectual standards of the American people.

At this point, education comes definitely into the picture. The process must begin even before birth, with prenatal care and education of mothers. It must be continued until all normal citizens have been instructed and trained to take their places in a productive economy. They must be able, ready, and willing to assume full responsibility in time of crisis. This responsibility is so varied in modern society and warfare that universal military training would be not only an enormous waste of money but, what is worse, a waste of personnel needed for the unbelievable variety of technical and professional skills required for peacetime production and wartime defense.

Junior College World

JESSE P. BOGUE

Executive Secretary

SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION

IN JANUARY the Executive Secretary attended the meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools at Memphis, Tennessee. He was invited to attend a session of the Committee on Accreditation of Junior Colleges. Experiences with other regional accrediting associations indicated that the work of the Southern Association was excellent by comparison. It was not easy to receive a clean slate from this group, although the members were friendly, open-minded, and fair. Apparently the committee is deeply interested in raising the standards of junior-college education in the South. All suggestions made to applicants were positive and, if carried out, would result in progress for the institutions. The committee was realistic in that it avoided making unreasonable demands. Orchids are in order for the excellent work of a splendid accrediting committee.

At the business meeting of the Junior College Section, J. B. Young, Jones County Junior College, Ellisville, Mississippi, was elected presi-

dent, and John E. Gray, Lamar College, Beaumont, Texas, secretary-treasurer.

NEWS FROM THE NORTHWEST

THE following news from our great Northwest highlights developments on a state-wide basis for Oregon, Washington, Idaho, Montana, and Utah. Dr. G. H. Vande Bogart, Northern Montana College, Havre, is president of the Northwest Association of Junior Colleges, and Dean Conan E. Mathews, of Idaho, is secretary.

Mrs. Gertrude H. Fariss, reporting for the junior colleges in Oregon, says that their enrolment this year has increased from 64 per cent to 574 per cent. Multnomah College is conducting vocational courses in aviation and automobile mechanics, radio, and refrigeration. Terminal courses are being given at Eastern Oregon and Southern Oregon Colleges of Education. Mrs. Fariss states that all the colleges have need of additional buildings for dormitories, libraries, classrooms, or shops.

Dean Lewis D. Cannell, of Clark Junior College at Vancouver, reports that the junior-college move-

ment in Washington is now twenty-one years old. Public junior colleges are now sharing in county school funds. In 1945 a state director of junior colleges was provided by the State Department of Education, the first such director in the country. The last legislature provided for the certification of junior-college teachers. Enrolments in the nine junior colleges of Washington range from 158 to 698, with a median of 281 and a total of 2,800 students. In his survey of education in the state of Washington, George D. Strayer strongly recommended that many school systems adopt the 6-4-4 plan.

President G. O. Kildow, of North Idaho Junior College, reports that the newest junior college in Idaho is the Veterans' College at Farragut, which expected 1,500 students in January, mostly from the eastern part of the country. Boise Junior College has 850 students and 50 teachers. North Idaho Junior College has about 200 students. The junior colleges of Idaho are supported by the property tax, liquor tax, and tuition fees. The Peabody Survey of Idaho recommends the four-year junior college and more direct control by the State Board of Education.

Dr. Vande Bogart, reporting for Montana, states that two public

junior colleges in Montana are extensions of the public school system. Both use the high-school plant but are hoping to secure their own separate physical plant. Both have excellent community support. Northern Montana College, of which Dr. Vande Bogart is president, is supported by the state and operated by the State Board of Higher Education. Billings Polytechnic Junior College, a private institution, is engaged in a building program. Dr. Vande Bogart thinks that more public junior colleges will be organized in the near future. Most of the junior colleges are concerned with the question of how to get teachers to handle the heavy enrolments.

President Glenn E. Snow, of Dixie Junior College, states that all the junior colleges of Utah are supported by the state. Their uniform fees are: \$10 registration fee, \$45 out-of-state fee, and \$17 tuition per quarter. Most of them have increased their enrolment by 100 per cent, and Weber College has tripled. The state of Utah, with a population of 630,000, has 200,000 people in school (180,000 in elementary and secondary schools and 20,000 in higher institutions). Junior-college teachers participate in the state retirement fund. All the colleges need buildings.

Recent Writings

Judging the New Books

The Improvement of Teacher Education. A Final Report by the Commission on Teacher Education. Washington: American Council on Education, 1946. Pp. xvi + 283. \$2.00.

AWARE of the critical need for improvement in teacher education, the American Council on Education in February, 1938, established the Commission on Teacher Education, appointing to it a group of outstanding educators under whose direction was carried out a really far-reaching project in teacher education. The field work conducted in connection with the various individual, state, and national studies was, for the most part, completed by June, 1942, and the Commission itself was formally dissolved in September, 1944. The present report, then, sums up the experiences of the Commission, as well as the conclusions and recommendations distilled from its six-year program and from the preceding series of detailed reports covering various specific aspects of the problem, such as pre-service education of teachers, in-service training, the satisfactoriness of graduate-school practice as related to the preparation

of college teachers, evaluative techniques and procedures, and state-wide programs for the improvement of teacher education.

Work of the Commission during its entire tenure was under the direction of Dr. Karl W. Bigelow, who in an introductory statement in this book concisely outlines the basic approach taken by the Commission. As the members of that group saw it, the Commission's task was to be primarily one of implementation: "the encouragement of experimental action at the points where teachers were actually being prepared and employed" (p. viii). Consequently its program was largely a field one, consisting of a national co-operative study in which fifty institutions—colleges and school systems—participated, ten state-wide studies of varying importance and success, and numerous conferences and workshops, including a collaboration center on child growth and development maintained during 1939-41 at the University of Chicago.

The organization of the report is simple, direct, and straightforward. The volume is divided into five chapters, each of which presents a

reasoned exposition of a certain phase of the Commission's activity and all of which together provide a comprehensive overview of the entire experiment. Chapter i, by and large, is a narrative account of the setting-up of the Commission and its work, from the organization period through the Bennington conference to the completion of the program. Improvement in the preparation of teachers is the subject of chapter ii, and it focuses attention on the contribution of individual colleges and universities in the co-operative study. In-service education, particularly as promoted by school systems participating in the nation-wide experiment, is the basis of chapter iii. These latter two chapters, when viewed carefully, clearly reveal that the education of teachers, pre-service and in-service, is in reality one continuous process. Chapter iv is concerned with inter-institutional co-operative enterprises, with special emphasis on those activities fathered by the various state departments participating in the state-wide studies. In chapter v there is a final summing-up by the Commission, concluding with a statement concerning the leading issues and promising trends as revealed through the study.

Although not addressed to the junior-college level, the report indicates interestingly how the problem of junior-college instructor preparation figured in the Commission's

deliberations. Among the questions listed as calling for study in the Commission's first publication, *Major Issues in Teacher Education*, was "the probable effect of the junior-college movement on programs for the education of teachers" (p. 16). This topic was brought up at the Bennington conference but, by implication, was dropped because it was one of those that received less than average response. At the risk of being critical, one might indicate that most of those attending the latter conference were not closely familiar with the junior-college field and hence were unaware of the significance of this problem. It does seem unfortunate that the oversight or lack of knowledge of the conferees resulted in neglect of this teaching level, especially when one appreciates the job that the junior colleges are doing in this postwar period.

Some will complain that the report offers too little in the way of specific direction. Such criticism has already been foreseen by the Commission, as might be indicated by quotation from the report. Actually the study has cast a glaring spotlight on many of the weaknesses of teacher education and at the same time has pointed the way to better accomplishment. For example, the evidence is clear that a prime need exists for greater institutional unity among university staff members and departments. Needed, too, is

an integration of course work to replace the patchwork of brief courses making up so many teacher-training curriculums today. There also appears reason to suppose that out of this study will arise an increased attention to in-service teacher education. All of this should mean much to the future widespread improvement of teaching personnel.

For the Committee on Teacher Preparation of the American Association of Junior Colleges, the report likewise offers both illuminating and substantiating evidence. One specific proposal reads:

Institutions preparing teachers should disseminate as widely as possible accurate information regarding the nature, importance, and rewards of teaching, the qualities significant for success in the profession, and the character of the preparatory programs they offer; this work should be done through publications and personal presentation . . . and it should be aimed at reaching underclassmen and high-school students as well as college and high-school faculty members (particularly those with counseling responsibilities), and, of course, the parents of promising prospects [pp. 74-75].

All of this appears to be further justification for the issuance of a bulletin similar to that previously proposed by this Association. Most

of the suggested revisions in teacher-education programs agree reasonably closely with those advocated by the Association, as enunciated specifically in the recommendations of the Washington Conference on the Preparation of Faculty Members for Junior Colleges and Technical Institutes (April, 1945). So far as in-service work is concerned, there was limited participation in this phase of the Commission's program by municipal junior colleges in a couple of communities—not enough perhaps for any generalization but at least a stirring that may chart the way for more vigorous action.

The significance of this final report of the Commission on Teacher Education might, in brief, be summed up by stressing the fact that it really represents the outcome of experimentation done at the grass roots—the individual institution or school system. There already is ample proof that some of its original projects are still operative and that many of the ideas are only now in the stage of germination—at the junior-college level as well as at other educational levels.

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Selected References

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MARKEY, MORRIS. "Our Colleges: A Revolution Is on Its Way," *Mc-Calls Magazine*, LXXIV (November, 1946), 18, 42, 44, 52, 56, 59.

Points out that the youth in our country is in a virtual stampede to get into college. Within ten years, it is predicted, one out of every three of our youths will be in an institution of higher learning. In addition to the rush of returning servicemen, there is an "almost frantic passion of the civilian youth, the boys and girls in high school and just leaving high school, to aim toward a college degree." What it is that they want and what the colleges should try to give them is the very essence of the problem. The article is constructed from data secured through study of recent surveys and reports and through talks with such educational leaders as James Bryant Conant of Harvard University, Milton Eisenhower of Kansas State College, and Dr. Vannevar Bush, director of the wartime Office of Scientific Research and Development.

Several of the studies reported show that the percentages of *superior* students who go on to college are in almost exact relation to family income. There are economic and geographic factors operating to stratify youth seeking educational opportunity. The answer suggested to remove these influences is federal aid to education. The plan set forth by the Educational Policies Commission contemplates a vast development of local centers for a certain amount of education beyond the high-school level, the bulk of the cost to be met by federal appropriation in the form of outright grants of money to the several states. The nucleus of the plan lies in the junior-college idea.

"In rural or farming sections an area of two hundred square miles should have at

its center a consolidated secondary school embracing all grades from the eighth to the fourteenth. . . . Within such an area no student should have to travel more than fifteen miles by free bus from home to school." In urban communities "community institutes" are proposed instead of the consolidated schools. These institutes would provide offerings at the junior-college level, and it is expected that five types of students would be attracted to such institutes: those who wish to prepare for technical or semi-professional occupations, those who propose to be skilled mechanics or to work in the building trades, those who intend to seek professional training in a university, those who wish to round out their general education before taking jobs or becoming homemakers, and employed older youths and adults who wish to resume or to continue their education while working. Los Angeles City College is an example of such a community institute. It is predicted that in 1947 more than 300,000 students will graduate from junior colleges; in 1957 the estimated number of graduates is 1,700,000.

The author also describes the federally supported system of scholarships proposed by Bush in the report, *Science, the Endless Frontier*. This plan proposes a total of six thousand annual scholarships to youths demonstrating unusual ability in scientific and technological fields. Money grants are to be the same as those given under the G.I. Bill of Rights. These scholarships would be distributed throughout the forty-eight states on the basis of a quota derived from the number of high-school graduates in the states for each successive year. "Early in July this year the Senate passed, 48 to 18, a bill creating a National Science Foundation for the purpose of granting just such scholarships."

Recipients of the scholarships are to be selected by the Foundation in Washington, rather than by selection committees in the several states, as had been recommended in Bush's report. Conant is reported to favor expansion of this plan: "Anything which must be taught at a special center of learning should be made available by scholarship to the exceptional minds of our young people, and the federal scholarship seems the best way to make certain that it is made available."

METCALF, HAROLD H. "Group Counseling at the Eleventh-Grade Level," *School Review*, LIV (September, 1946), 401-5.

Shows how well-planned group counseling may promote general welfare in the school. The conclusions reached are especially relevant to junior colleges organized as part of a 6-4-4 system of schools and to junior colleges which, though not a definite unit in a local school system, operate in close association with lower educational institutions. The plan was carried out in Oak Park and River Forest Township High School in Illinois, a school of about thirty-five hundred students, organized under a superintendent into what could be compared to four small schools, one for each year level, each having an instructor to head the counseling activities for the boys and another to head the counseling activities for the girls.

Rapid physical growth and the emotional disturbances characteristic of adolescence bring the students to Grade XI with many questions pertaining to their futures. All data on the previous ten years are available to the counselors of the eleventh-grade students. Individual counseling is available to all on any question and is much used by the students.

Shortly after the beginning of the Junior year, each student is given the American Council on Education Psychological Examination for High-School Students. An announcement is made that pupils may take the Kuder Preference Record, and an explanation is given of the significance of this inventory and of the follow-up conferences that are held. Students who fill out the Kuder

Preference Record are called in for conferences in groups of about fifteen. Profiles are used as bases for discussion and for explanations of Kuder's interpretation of the occupations in each of nine areas. In the cases where expressed interests do not agree with measured interests, challenging thought is provoked. Students are encouraged to learn the meaning of the profile and to take the forms home and explain them to their parents. The group conference answers general questions and starts many students on their way to making satisfactory vocational adjustments. Individual follow-up is often necessary and desirable. The group counseling technique has been found useful in bringing information to the students, in helping them gain insight into their problems, and in establishing friendly relations between the school and the home.

It is concluded on the basis of trial to date that the group-guidance technique (1) permits the counselors to meet many more students on a personal basis; (2) gives the students the benefit of group interaction and brings more questions into focus; (3) leads to further conferences with individual students and parents; (4) makes more time available for individual attention to exceptional problems by answering many questions in the general group conferences; and (5) results in an understanding on the part of the students that the counseling service is for their use and advantage.

Problems of Faculty Personnel. Compiled and edited by JOHN DALE RUSSELL. Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, 1946, Vol. XVIII. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1946. Pp. vi + 146.

Includes articles which discuss the problems of demand for, and preparation, selection, induction, service loads, housing and welfare, promotion, evaluation, and management of, faculty members in institutions of higher learning. These articles contain much that is of pertinence to junior colleges. Two articles refer specifically to the junior college and related institutions:

1. REYNOLDS, JAMES W. "The Preparation Needed for Faculty Members in Junior Colleges," pp. 34-46.

Discusses the specialized learning experiences required in the training of junior-college instructors. The term "preparation of junior-college teachers" is explained in terms of the "general competencies" which should be the common possession of teachers at all levels and in all fields and in terms of the specialized attainments qualifying the teacher for the specific level or area in which he plans to teach. Reynolds discusses only the specialized training needed by junior-college instructors.

Reviewing the literature on the subject, the author presents two significant contributions. One is the indication of the trend toward the requirement that junior-college instructors hold the Master's degree. This trend was shown by the independent studies by Koos and by Garrison. The other is the list of recommendations for the training of junior-college instructors issued by the Committee on Teacher Preparation of the American Association of Junior Colleges.

Five functions of the junior college and the implications of each function for teacher preparation are considered. The five functions are (1) rounding-out of the general education of the individual student, (2) providing vocational competence in a degree sufficient to afford the opportunity for immediate entrance into gainful employment, (3) providing a satisfactory base for advanced study by those students who will go on with their education, (4) meeting the educational needs of adults in the community, (5) providing guidance and counseling services concerning the problems faced by young people and adults. The elements of specialized training drawn from the discussion and suggested for inclusion in a program for preparing junior-college instructors are summarized by the author in this list: "(1) advanced study in general education; (2) specialized knowledge of evaluation techniques to be used in rounding out general education; (3) specialized ability in the use of instructional techniques useful in individualizing instruction; (4) formal courses for developing broad vocational skills; (5)

courses intended to provide socioeconomic knowledge and understanding of labor relations, predominating social patterns of those who engage in specific vocations, and like subjects; (6) job experience in vocational fields in which teaching is to be done; (7) courses intended to qualify instructors to prepare adequately those students who will be candidates for advanced college work; (8) competency in conducting analyses of the validity of courses considered as prerequisites to advanced study; (9) a genuine appreciation for the community-service aspect of the junior college; (10) a broad concept of the term 'educational service' for adults; (11) familiarity with techniques of instruction which are most effective in organizing learning experiences for adults; (12) an understanding of the problems common to older youth and adults; (13) an understanding of the whole span of adolescence, with emphasis on the later years of this period; (14) functioning ability to use techniques which are most effective in providing guidance and counseling for older youths and adults; (15) a genuine respect for the importance of the work of all teachers; (16) an understanding of the philosophy of the junior college; (17) student teaching and observation in a junior college; (18) a period of three years or more of study beyond the Sophomore year of college."

2. JARVIE, L. L. "The Preparation Needed for Faculty Members in Technical Schools and Institutes," pp. 68-74.

Stresses teacher growth on the job because of the variety of backgrounds essential in a faculty of a technical institute. The purpose of the technical institute is to "send out a product, a graduate who, through experiences in such a school, has achieved a foundation on which to expand a way of life in which earning a living is an important part." Usually there are three categories of instructors: those who are responsible for development of general experiences, those concerned with the specific skills of machine operations, and those who impart broad theoretical applications of various technologies. Failure to integrate the thinking and actions of instruc-

tors in the preceding categories is probably one of the greatest weaknesses in their preparation.

Since all instructors are part of a single enterprise with common purposes, they must possess certain common knowledges. The need of all instructors for a progressively clearing concept of the philosophy and purposes of technical institutes demands that prospective instructors be trained "so that they will possess a base for continued growth and development in acquiring knowledge and experience essential for remaining abreast of the realistic social and technological changes of contemporary society at any particular time." With respect to subject matter, shop and technical instructors should possess mastery of their field of specialization to the point where they can meet the requirements of industry for workers in that field. Some actual work experience should be completed either before the period of teaching in a technical institute or parallel with it. Instructors should have an understanding of the complex factors of human growth and development to enable them to develop skill in dealing with the special problems of the age group enrolled in technical institutes. Training and experience in the application of principles of curriculum construction and evaluation are needed. Particular emphasis should be placed on the procedures of job analysis as a method of curriculum development.

Many of these skills and experiences will be developed through in-service training. Such training is necessary because of the diversity of backgrounds and the problem of

developing a cohesive and effective faculty. "Colleges and universities can contribute greatly to this training of individuals on the job by providing consulting services and extension courses related to problems being faced everyday by instructors."

SMITH, LEO F. "Effect of the War on Co-operative Education," *Higher Education*, II (March 15, 1946), 1-3.

A report of a survey made to determine the following information: (1) the number of programs which had been continued during the war; (2) the programs which had been discontinued; (3) significant changes which were being planned in co-operative programs; and (4) plans for co-operative programs in institutions which had not previously been carrying on this type of education. Seventeen of the twenty-nine colleges and two of the three technical institutes responding maintained their programs during the war, although with greatly reduced enrolments. In several instances the programs were opened to women. All the colleges (with one possible exception) and technical institutes plan on continuing their programs. Four institutions with periods of alternation of less than one quarter or semester in length have increased the length of the school and work block. One institution which had a six-month period of alternation is shortening it to a three-month period. Four institutions are expanding the number of co-operative curriculums offered.